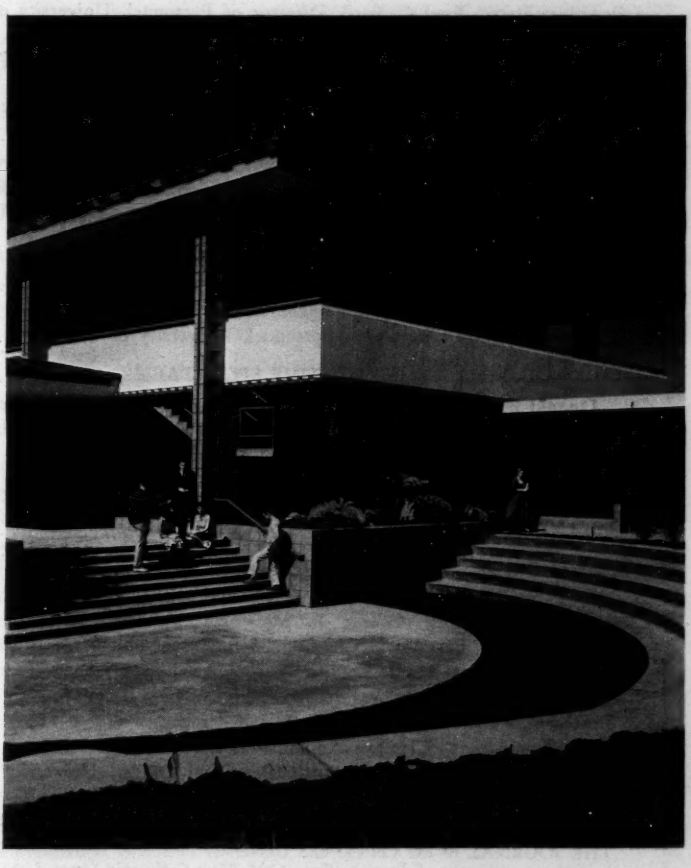
the journal

of the College and University Personnel Association



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THE JOURNAL

of the

College and University Personnel Association

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" . . . . notes and quotes . . . . "

(*Editor's Note*: In May, 1952, a Committee under the Chairmanship of Dr. Arlyn C. Marks, drafted a Model Personnel Policy outline for the Association. Since that time, it has been used extensively by our members as a guide in establishing, implementing, and evaluating their programs. Although nine years have passed since this policy was drafted, it is interesting to note that it is still pertinent and useful.)

Model Personnel Policy
A Committee Recommendation
for the
College and University Personnel
Association
May 3, 1952

The "Model Personnel Policy," which is outlined below, is not intended to be restrictive, inclusive, or conclusive. It is recognized that, in the individual institution, conditions—internal, geographic, and intra-organizational—may provide reasons for differing from procedures here outlined. The listing, as shown, does not imply a unanimous or universal acceptance of all of its terms by all institutions of higher learning. The policy is intended, on the other hand, as a guide for consideration at the local level. Its terms represent a consensus of the thinking and practice at many institutions of

CONTENTS

		Page
Democratic Administration	*C. W. Hotchkiss*	1
Preliminary Findings Based on Association's Labor Relations Questionnaire	*Robert E. Hartz*	4
The Annual Report: A Public Relations Tool	*Harold W. Herman*	9
A Study of the Manual for Nonacademic Staff Members of Colleges and Universities, *A Report of a Seminar, The Catholic University of America*		13
The Credit Union as an Added Benefit in the College and University	*Charles A. Harkness*	17
Pay for Work and *Not* for Work Histories	*C. Wallace Lott*	21
Secretarial and Clerical Personnel Selection	*William P. Angers, Alex Bedrosian,* and *A. Pemberton Johnson*	27
CUPA's Bookshelf		30
Notes and Quotes		i
Editorially Speaking		iii

higher learning, as developed by planning and experience. It does not, however, carry a mandate for acceptance of that thinking and practice, in full, or in part, by the individual college or university.

Obtain Capable People

Job Classification

Jobs shall be classified and described on the basis of duties and responsibilities, using an accepted objective method of job classification.

Recruiting and Employment

Recruiting shall be aimed at obtaining employees best qualified to fill available positions based on clearly defined job requirements. Selection shall be based on merit and ability to be ascertained by effective use of selection techniques.

Physical Requirements

Where the nature of the work situation requires, medical advice shall be secured to assure the physical qualifications of the new employee. The standards shall be set and the expense assumed by the institution.

Utilize Their Efforts Effectively

Training and Education

A broad program shall be developed consistent with the basic purpose of the institution itself including:

Orientation of the new employee

Special subject courses, job-related

Effective supervisory training

Within defined limits, registration in regular university courses

Evening or extension courses

Job training shall be given during working hours. All types of training shall be offered at no cost to the employee, if possible, or at least with reduced tuition in the case of regular college classes.

Promotions

Personnel within the organization should have the opportunity to be considered first for promotional opportunities. If the position cannot be filled with a fully qualified applicant on this basis, selection should then be made from the best qualified applicants available, whether they be present employees or persons not now employed by the institution.

Transfers

The best interests of the institution shall be the paramount consideration in interdepartmental transfers, taking into consideration, as far as possible, the wishes of the employee.

Centralized Reports

Centralized records covering employees' work and personal history shall be recognized as a necessary personnel tool and shall be used as an aid in compiling significant statistical information.

Objective

It shall be the policy of the institution to utilize each employee to the fullest extent of his training and capabilities.

Maintain Willingness to Work to Achieve the Organization's Purpose

Basic Salary Schedules

Salary schedules shall be an integral part of the institution's job classification pro-

(Continued on Page 37)

" . . . editorially speaking . . . "

THOMAS J. WALL

Director of Personnel
West Virginia University

The practice of hiring at the gate and looking for the cheapest pair of hands has become a thing of the past on the industrial scene, but, unfortunately, these practices still find a great deal of support on many campuses of colleges and universities.

Recruiting of technical and professional staff for our nation's colleges and universities has become a most important task facing university administrators. Since the rise of the Sputnik, there has been increasing national concern over the plight of education, which has focused the eyes of the people on the "American University." Never before have the colleges and universities in this country been in a more favorable position to gain the financial support which is so necessary for facilities, equipment, and increased salaries. As a result, in every section of the country, new campus buildings are being erected to provide expanded dormitory space, modern teaching classrooms, and ultra-modern research laboratories, equipped with the latest apparatus to help solve the problems of the atomic age.

We have entered, not only this atomic age, but, I believe, an age dedicated to the expansion and development of the American college and university system. It seems almost, as if, in one voice, the top executives of our universities have accepted the challenge and are directing their efforts toward the long overdue goals of faculty salary increases and expansion of their physical plants, both which must be accomplished if we are to meet the overwhelming student demands forecast by the experts.

One danger still remains, however, in this race for expansion. Perhaps it is best expressed as a "creation of an administrative technical lag," which may be brought about by our failure to provide a supporting staff of equal quantity and quality, so necessary if we are to keep pace with the expanding teaching and research programs.

Unfortunately, too little has been said about the need for concentrated efforts in this area. Those of us in Personnel are well aware, however, that this demand for technical help has increased considerably in the last five years and that strong action must be taken if we are to provide these technical specialists to staff these expanding operations with full-time career employees. In the eyes

of the public today, universities are no longer institutions dedicated to beautiful campus grounds, successful football teams, and old grads with fond memories, but rather, they have taken on the aspects of giant businesses, dedicated to the objective of producing, through teaching and research, well-equipped and well-trained men and women to compete with the Russians for world leadership.

The responsibility for developing the supporting staffs and providing for their welfare has been placed directly in the hands of our Personnel Departments. Therefore, it is evident why the recruiting of superior professional, technical, clerical, and maintenance personnel to staff and efficiently operate the expanding resources of our colleges and universities has become one of the foremost problems facing the college and university Personnel Office. How, then, are we to proceed?

Recruiting for a college or university today is identical to recruiting for a large industrial organization, as we are, at least, in structure comparable to a large industrial organization. One needs only to compare our annual budgets for personal services to learn that these expenditures not only equal the expenditures of many industries, but in some cases surpass them. Our needs for clerical, technical, and professional employees are as great, if not greater, than the needs of our industrial counterparts, who have turned, to some extent, to costly automation to help solve their employment problems. Our employee training costs are well related to those of the industrial employer, particularly when we consider the training given to employees directly, or by classroom instruction by our high-salaried professors in the fields of engineering, medicine, and nuclear physics—to mention only a few. Our facilities and equipment, especially in research, surpass most of our industrial competition by their wide divergence of research aims. All of these factors add up to the simple fact that today, colleges and universities are, whether we like it or not, in direct competition with private industrial enterprises for the talents of a very limited supply of trained personnel, who are seeking full-time, permanent careers. We can no longer completely staff our departments with graduate students and part-time student help, who will leave the school at graduation for the higher paid ranks of industry in a few short years. We have new needs and new problems requiring an active new approach for their solution.

The practice of hiring at the gate and looking for the cheapest pair of hands has become a thing of the past on the industrial scene, but, unfortunately, these practices still find a great deal of support on many campuses of colleges and universities. This attitude presents the Personnel Officer with the first difficult objective to be gained if he is to compete successfully in the field of technical recruiting. As personnel men and women, we must work constantly to urge our university Presidents to provide a favorable and competitive wage scale in all nonacademic areas, if we are to succeed in recruiting the superior applicants.

However, this gain in nonacademic salary scales must not come as a result of shifting the compensation from one group of nonacademic employees to another, but rather it will require a direct

(Continued on Page 39)

Democratic Administration

C. W. HOTCHKISS

For a long time there has been considerable discussion as to whether or not traditional university administration should be liberalized or should remain authoritarian and controlled. That it now should be modernized and democratized seems generally accepted, according to the author.

Democratic university administration is a subject which is receiving a considerable amount of attention these days. In fact, there have been an unusual number of articles dealing with this subject in recent issues of educational journals. It is interesting to note that the majority of these reports are written by administrators, themselves. This fact would tend to indicate that they are cognizant of the need for something other than the traditional or authoritarian type of administrative procedure: a fact which may come as a pleasant surprise to most faculty and staff members.

University Administration Liberalized

University administration has been moving slowly, but steadily, from a rather authoritarian type of control or organization to a more democratic or cooperative procedure. This movement has advanced from a stage of theory to that of generally accepted practice. For a long time there was considerable discussion as to whether or not traditional university administration should be liberalized or remain as it had for years. The belief that it should be modernized and democratized seems generally accepted; now the discussion is centered around what forms it should take and how far the process should be carried. As several writers have pointed out, the days of autocratic administration in American higher education seem to be about over. The time has passed when a president or a few deans or department heads can dictate university policy with complete disregard for the wishes of the remainder of the faculty and staff.

Democracy In Internal Operation

Democracy in internal operation of a university implies that all those affected by the education program shall have opportunities to express their views on the whole program or any of its parts. Those affected, of course, are teachers, students, administrators, other employees, board

Mr. Hotchkiss is Director of Personnel, Colorado State University.

members, parents, taxpayers, and other interested citizens. However, at this time we are going to concern ourselves primarily with the administrative staff, faculty, and non-professional university employees.

Two Points of View

There seem to be two basic and somewhat divergent points of view concerning what actually constitutes democratic procedure in university administration. These approaches are quite different. The one concept is based upon the traditional philosophy that holds that a university is democratically administered if it is responsive to the general public and effective in educating students to live in a democratic society. Of course, this institution is a democratic one in the sense that it is an institution established by, and responsible to, a democratic society; however, it certainly is not, of necessity, democratic from the standpoint of internal operation. There is also the question as to whether or not the traditional point of view lends itself to truly efficient operation, even though a relatively few individuals are responsible for all of the important decisions.

The exponents of the other point of view regard each university as a small democracy in itself. They consider the rights of all of the people concerned with the university to participate in its direction. In the first concept, the administration looks also within the university, but in this new concept, one not only looks at the efficiency of the institution, but also at the extent to which it provides outlets for the rights of a vast majority of persons to participate in the task of operating the program.

This does not necessarily mean that everyone should have an equal voice in planning and administering the university program. Rather it should mean that each person should have a voice according to his competency in educational work and according to his legal responsibilities for the program. As an example, there is nothing democratic in a university faculty voting on whether or not the school should maintain Saturday morning classes if the professors are merely voting for or against the extra work. It is democratic, on the other hand, for an administrator to ask his staff to discuss with him the problem of overcrowded classroom facilities in an attempt to remedy the situation. The question of the Saturday classes is then decided upon its value as a remedy for the problem. If the faculty discussion seems to indicate that this action is necessary, and is a definite help in solving the problem, a faculty member who is against the proposition merely because it is distasteful for him to work occasionally on Saturday forfeits his right to a voice in deciding the question.

Responsibility and Authority

Responsibility and authority go together, and they cannot, and should not, be separated. Other university personnel have no right in the name of democracy to ask an administrator to share his authority with them, unless they can assume, in some way, the responsibility for the decisions they make. No good can come from a system in which the staff share in decisions, but the administrator, alone, takes the praise or blame for the results. This would be as unacceptable as allowing the members of the football team to take turns selecting plays during a game and then firing the coach be-

cause his offense lacked continuity.

It seems rather obvious that certain conditions should be met before a staff member is to have a voice in the administration of the university of which he is a member.

1. He must have an intelligent understanding and sympathy for the administrative process.

2. He must believe that his ideas or opinions improve the over-all program and hence will improve the university and society.

3. He must have the ability and willingness to investigate controversial issues and base judgments on facts.

4. He must be practical.

In discussing the policies of the board of regents, it should be understood, even though the fact is that the board of an educational institution is legally responsible for policy formulation, this does not mean that other members of the staff and faculty cannot participate in policy making and policy revisions. In fact, more effective policies will result if all parties concerned participate in policy making that deals with the educational program, the use of physical facilities, disposition of supplies and materials, and budgetary disbursements. It can also be pointed out that in other areas, such as maintenance and clerical matters, these people will also have a stake in the areas that concern them, and they should be consulted. The process should be carried on so that each group, or individual involved in a problem area, feels some obligation for policy formulation. The people carrying out the policies are more apt to support them wholeheartedly if they feel that they are in some measure responsible for them. They are less apt to "pass the buck" by attributing the policies to the administrative staff or the governing board.

Psychological Effect

Another aspect of this matter of democracy in educational administration is that of the psychological effect upon the various parties concerned. It is a fact that to attain democratic interaction and effective participation, staff members must feel secure in their relationship with each other and with the administrative staff. This does not imply a narrow concept, such as job tenure, but a basic psychological sense of acceptance, approval, and belonging. It is the responsibility of the top administrator in a democratic institution to engender this security among members by his actions. An atmosphere of approval must be developed, so that staff members will feel that their actions are not constantly in doubt. To be believed in by others constitutes a basis for self-belief. In developing this atmosphere, an administrator's manner of acting toward staff members is of utmost importance. The administrator's actions usually reveal whether he expects the best or the worst from his co-workers.

The following is a list of basic psychological needs of university employees, which any modern administrator or supervisor should keep in mind:

1. The need to know where the individual stands or what is expected of him.

2. The need for a sense of belonging.

3. The need for independence.

4. The need to participate.

(Continued on Page 40)

Preliminary Findings Based on Association's Labor Relations Questionnaire

ROBERT E. HARTZ

The following preliminary report is presented by the Committee on Labor Relations of the College and University Personnel Association, to be followed by a full report at the Annual Meeting of the Association in August, 1961.

At the 1960 National CUPA Conference, a Committee on Labor Relations was formed. The primary concern of the Committee, initially, was to study the scope and extent of union activity, to determine trends of unionization in the college and university field, and to ascertain if such a committee could serve a useful purpose to the membership.

To obtain preliminary information, a questionnaire was developed and distributed by attaching it to the "CUPA Newsletter" (No. 16), March, 1961. Although it was recognized that this might prove to be a subject of rather limited interest on the part of some member institutions, it was generally felt by the officers of the Association that more up-to-date information about this field of interest might be useful. The response to the questionnaire was good.

Members of the Committee on Labor Relations of the College and University Personnel Association are Robert E. Hartz, Associate Director of Nonacademic Personnel, University of Illinois, *Chairman;* Ray Fortunato, Director of Department of Personnel Services and Employee Relations, Pennsylvania State University; Len H. Glander, Director of Personnel, Michigan State University; George H. Griswold, Personnel Director, Yale University; Lewis B. Perry, Personnel Manager, Berkeley Campus Personnel Office, University of California; Nicholai F. Wessell, Associate Director of Personnel, Harvard University; David T. Wiant, Personnel Officer, Illinois State Normal University.

Purpose and Method

Attention has, from time to time, been focused on collective bargaining activities of service staff employees at colleges and universities. There has been, and currently is, talk of stepped-up union organization drives among such employees. Although impressions have been formed through conversation with member institutions that quite a bit of collective bargaining is already taking place, there has been little information available.

The purpose of this study was to discover the current stage of development of collective bargaining by institutions of higher education who are members of the College and University Personnel Association. The scope of the study did not include the evaluation of the soundness, the legality or illegality, or the de-

sirability of any procedures that are presently in effect at the colleges and universities concerned.

All of the information was derived from the Labor Relations Questionnaire sent to members of the College and University Personnel Association. The questionnaires were mailed on or about March 20 and were received by the member institutions during the week of March 20, 1961. The receipt and follow-up on the questionnaires took place between March 27 and May 1, 1961. No personal interviews were conducted. The member institutions are located in most of the fifty states of the United States and in Canada, Mexico, and the Central and South American countries. The study, therefore, to a degree, took on an international flavor. Since preliminary indications revealed that collective activities might be concentrated in certain areas, the questionnaire contained a statement that cover letters should be sent also, if the member institutions wanted to expand further on their labor relations programs. It was recognized that for some institutions the answers to the key questions would take on a degree of complexity, whereas, for others it meant just a simple "yes" or "no."

Definition and Coverage

The term "labor relations" as used in the questionnaire, primarily referred to unionization of nonacademic staff (service personnel). It was used in its narrowest sense, and the study was focused on the extent of unionization. No attempt was made to define the type of control for the educational institution; no attempt was made to define carefully the terms used. The questionnaire was of the simplest type; it was used in an attempt to secure a better idea about this area of interest.

Only colleges and universities who were members of the Association were included, since this was an Association activity, and the exclusion of other institutions was in no way meant to imply that other educational institutions were not of equal importance. Without suggesting generalization of the findings, it was thought that member institutions of the Association would provide a typical sampling of educational institutions throughout the country.

General Findings

Thirty-seven per cent of the member institutions responded to the questionnaire. Converting the 37% to 100% for statistical purposes, it was found that 39% stated that some portion of their nonacademic (service staff) belonged to, or was represented by unions, with the remaining 61% showing no union activity.

The institutions were divided by location into geographic regions as follows: Eastern, Southern, Midwestern, and Western sections of the United States. Canada, the only other area outside the United States responding, was listed as a separate region. Eleven states and the District of Columbia were listed for the Eastern region; 12 states were listed for the Southern region; 13 states were listed for the Midwestern region; 14 states, including our two new states of Alaska and Hawaii, were listed for the Western region. Canadian replies were listed as from a separate region.

Questionnaires were received from institutions located in 9 of the 11 states and from the District of Columbia in the Eastern region, from 11 of the 12 states in the Southern region, from all of

the states in the Midwestern region, and from 9 of the 14 states in the Western region. Fifty per cent of the Canadian members responded to the questionnaire. The number of institutions located within the boundaries of any particular state varied from one to fifteen. Therefore, the survey covered 42 states, the District of Columbia, and Canada.

Fifty-five per cent of the reporting institutions for the Eastern region reported some unionization, and 45% reported none. With one very minor exception, the Southern region reported no unionization. Forty-four per cent of the reporting institutions of the Midwestern region reported some unionization, and 56% showed none. Forty per cent of the reporting institutions of the Western region reported some unionization, and 60% showed none. One hundred per cent of the reporting institutions of the Canadian region reported some unionization.

What group(s) of employees belong to a union(s)? It was found that the blue-collar worker was primarily the union member, but with some evidence of membership in the clerical field. For the purpose of this study, the following four classification categories were developed and are listed in order of their importance.

1. Primarily *maintenance employees* of the buildings and grounds department (such as custodial, housekeeping, storekeeping, laundry, power plant, grounds); laboratory and research; hospital, dormitory and student union, including food service; and building trades.

2. Primarily *building tradesmen* (including the printing trades), custodial staff; and power plant staffs.

3. Primarily *power plant employees.*

4. Primarily *clerical and maintenance employees.*

About 63% of the union classification groupings were in category 1 and in varying degrees as to extent and scope. Some institutions had relatively few groupings, whereas others covered almost all of the groupings shown in category 1. About 27% of the groupings were in category 2. About 6% of the groupings were in category 3, and 4% were in category 4.

What union(s) represent these employees? Especially in category 1 above, the principal unions were the American Federation of State, County and Municipal Employees (AFL-CIO) and the Building Service Employees International Union (AFL-CIO). It was not uncommon to find both of these unions active on the same campus. Other unions included the various construction craft unions of the building trades; International Typographical Union; International Printing Pressmen and Assistants' Union of North America; Transport Workers Union of America; International Union of Operating Engineers; International Brotherhood of Firemen and Oilers; Office Employees' International Union; United Mine Workers of America; Hotel and Restaurant Employees and Bartenders International Union; International Brotherhood of Teamsters, Chauffeurs, Warehousemen and Helpers of America; International Association of Machinists; and the International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers are among those listed most frequently by the reporting institutions. In addition to these unions, there was evidence of some independent local groups, as well as of some state employee associations.

Approximately what percentage of your total staff is represented by (a)

union(s)? Only 7% of the educational institutions reporting union activity based on classification groupings had more than 50% of their service staff unionized; 33% had from 25% to 50%; 25% had from 10% to 25%; 28% had from 0% to 10%, and 7% reported the extent of unionization as not known. It was assumed that in many cases the percentage of membership was determined by the number of persons employed in classifications represented by the union or unions, which, in itself, does not show the actual number of union members.

Do you actually recognize and have collective bargaining agreements (contracts) with the union(s)? Fifty-three per cent of the educational institutions reporting union activity had collective bargaining agreements. Some of these agreements were highly formalized; others were letters of understanding; others contained the general policy statements of the institution; and others were prepared in a very informal manner. Forty-seven per cent reported no collective bargaining agreements, and these various "no" answers were based on a variety of statements. Typical of statements used were "recognize, but no written agreement allowed under Civil Service laws," "follow building trades agreements (not always in total, but in part, with the tendency to be guided more as to wages, working hours, and overtime)," "permitted to join, but do not recognize the union as the bargaining agent," "no agreements, but discuss problems of mutual interest," "informal unwritten understandings," "no, but a movement in that direction," "legal questions not resolved."

Seventeen per cent of the institutions who reported having union agreements enclosed copies of their agreements or policy statements.

Do you have union organization on the campus but do not bargain with them collectively? Please explain. The study disclosed that there was a close interrelationship with the answers given to these questions and with the answers given in the preceding question where the answer was reported as "no." There was some evidence that active discussions were held with union groups, but that no written agreements were formalized. A variety of reasons were given, such as "legality," "policies of the Board of Control," and "civil service restrictions."

Do you have employee associations? About 12% of all educational institutions reporting (not limited to those with union activity) stated that they had some form of employee association. About 4½% reported state associations of various types, with the remaining 7½% either not named or of an independent nature.

What, if any, organizational activity is now being carried on by (a) union(s)? If being carried on, by what union(s)? Give nature of the activity. Increased organizational activity, as reported at several of the educational institutions, was conducted primarily by the American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees Union (AFL-CIO) and the Building Service Employees International Union (AFL-CIO). Also, there were reports that the International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers and the International Association of Machinists were engaged in organizational activities at several locations. Some other organization drives are under way either to expand membership or to gain new membership, but specific organizations were

not named. Increased activity was reported from several institutions by state employee associations.

In your opinion, is union activity greater or less than it was five years ago? Ten years ago? Is it remaining more or less constant? The number reporting that union activity was greater five and ten years ago was just about balanced out by those reporting that it was less five and ten years ago. About 54% reported that unionization on their campuses was remaining more or less constant. The findings suggest increased activity in some areas, where activity had not existed before, and in those areas where unionization had been established, the situation, with minor exceptions, was remaining somewhat constant.

Do you pay the basic construction craft rate which prevails in your locality to craftsmen employed? If yes, do you extend to these employees all other institutional benefits? If your answer is "no," it is assumed that you have a maintenance rate. About 15% of all educational institutions (not limited to those with union activity) reported paying the basic construction rate (building trades) which prevailed in their locality to construction trades craftsmen. Members of the printing trades were also included in this total. About 6½% of this 15% reported that they paid benefits, but not necessarily all types, in addition to the basic construction craft rate. The combination of "no" answers and "no answers given" (which was assumed to be a "no") represented 85% of the institutions reporting. There was some evidence that the construction rates were taken into consideration by several of the institutions, but that they paid below scale or on a percentage of scale. However, here again, this was the exception to, instead of, the rule. The maintenance rate was the common practice.

Using the term, "problem," loosely, what specific problems, if any, do you have in dealing with unions and their representatives? Many answers were received, but in summarizing them, the majority appeared to fall in the following categories: "unrealistic demands," "tendency of the unions to seek benefits which the institution cannot afford," "administration of the union contract extremely time consuming," "methods for dealing with multiple unions," "methods for dealing with industrial type unions," "lack of long range planning," "conflict with civil service laws," "questions of legality," "inadequately trained shop stewards," "inexperience of union business representatives in handling college and university employees and public employees," "jurisdictional work claims," "union representatives not familiar with the policies of educational institutions," "personality conflicts," "maintaining balance of wage structure between organized and unorganized employees," "failure to follow appropriate grievance procedures," and "lack of understanding or comprehension on the part of management personnel about dealing with unions." Some answers were tailored to the particular institution based on individual situations.

Summary

A sufficient number of interest replies were received to suggest that a committee concerned with labor relations can serve a useful purpose to the membership of the College and University Personnel Association.

(Continued on Page 40)

The Annual Report: A Public Relations Tool

HAROLD W. HERMAN

"'The public be damned' was the attitude of railroad tycoon, James J. Hill, at the turn of the century, and it appears to be the pose of some university executives as they keep the details of institutional cards close to their administrative vests. The time is long past when anybody in higher education can be permitted such arrogance or stupidity; the public has a right to know."

In many respects the annual report of the president/business manager is a testament of faith. It reports the fidelity with which they have discharged the public trust placed upon them and other members of the administrative staff. Equally important is the opportunity it presents to give expression for the hopes of the future of the institution and, in cogent fashion, to interpret the objectives and purposes of the institution.

With the pressures caused by overflow enrollments and the necessity for additional funds to provide facilities to meet these needs, the public feels entitled to ask for an accounting of their monies. For many years, however, some administrators in higher education have felt this was "none of the public's business." Such an attitude can hardly be viewed with much sympathy by the public—particularly when they are being solicited by the institution for gifts.

College executives are just beginning to realize what business corporations have known for some time—that the annual report is an effective communications device. Professor J. Harold Janis, of New York University, writing in the booklet "Annual Reports and the Corporate Character," points out that, "the virtue of the annual report is that it serves better than any other medium the function of corporate communication. . . . " It is the company's "yearbook." It is an indispensable source of information for the appraisal of the past performance and the future prospects of the company.

"One reason for the respect accorded annual reports is that they are the product of top management, itself. Unlike other company communications, annual reports are not left principally to the talents of subordinates, but enlist the active interest and the ideas of officers in the category of president and directors."

No wonder annual reports have received so much attention in the last decade and more—even to the extent of being awarded their own "Oscars," cour-

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Mr. Herman, who serves as Editor of *College and University Business*, presented this paper at the Fiftieth Annual Meeting of the Central Association of College and University Business Officers, April 30, 1961, and is reprinted with permission of the author.

tesy of *Financial World* magazine. Valued as they are, however, annual reports still raise important questions about their philosophy and preparation. For example:

1. How is the corporate image to be related to the corporate character?
2. What should be the company's attitude toward public issues affecting the corporation?
3. How can you popularize the report without diluting or distorting the hard facts?
4. How do you reconcile the interests of shareholder, employees, and other classes of readers in the same report?
5. How lush can a report be before the art becomes irrelevant and the stockholder claims a waste of money?
6. What should an executive know about editing the annual report?

As one writer has put it, "The primary concept of annual reporting rests on the principle of disclosure—that is, revealment of information that would help the outside observer determine how well management is doing its job. In addition to reporting on facts, it is now the accepted practice to provide an *interpretation* of facts so that the reader may understand their significance and take intelligent action. When a report fails in this interpretive function, it is usually because the facts are insufficient or their meaning is not clear."

Projection for the Future

In addition to reporting the basic data, such as an assets and liabilities statement and an income and disbursement report, the report should build upon the past year to effectively project for the future. The reader should be able to discover, as a result of having read an annual report, what the college or university is projecting for four or five years hence. In this respect, many reports fail miserably.

The importance of proper packaging of the annual report is self-evident. This is as true of an annual report as it is of the successful design of an automobile, a perfume bottle, or a speedboat.

Design of Report

The annual report presents an intriguing design problem. The basic function of all annual reports is the same—the subject matter, and especially the financial statements tend to conform to tradition. But this does not exclude the use of imagination in effectively presenting this data.

The selection of type face, illustration, and color must be consistent with the basic pattern of the institution. Certainly the frilly, arty type of report would be out of order for an engineering school like Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Conversely, heavy masculine type and editorial emphasis would be out of character for an institution like Vassar.

Early in the planning of the annual report it will be imperative that decisions be made as to its general content, the use of photographs, charts and graphs, and proper inclusion of statistical data.

In general, most annual reports favor an 8½" by 11" letterhead size. Most readers prefer the standard size, because it is convenient for filing and reference purposes. The printing company will prefer this size because of the basic proportions which lend themselves to good design.

Considerable attention should be devoted to the selection of an effective cover for the annual report. Use a cover that does an interpretive job for the institution. This can be a striking photograph, symbolic artwork, or imaginative use of color. The cover does not have

to be deadly dull, although many annual reports are guilty of this.

The proper display of the financial statement offers the greatest challenge to ingenuity. With use of imagination, statistics can take on visual appeal when they incorporate graphic design techniques, such as bar graphs, picture charts, and line graphs. Color is particularly effective in highlighting data which is being presented in table form.

In all of this concern for design, there must be exercising of restraint. The essentially conservative nature of a financial report would suggest that flamboyance and gaudiness be avoided at all costs.

Good taste and moderation in the design of an annual report are just as important as they are in personal dress of men and women.

Responsibility for Report

In developing an annual report, it is important that a single individual be given this assignment. What is anybody's business is nobody's business. He should be a representative of top management within the institution so that the responsibilities involved in the production of the report are given the serious attention and consideration they deserve by members of the administrative staff.

Distribution of Report

The determination of the mailing list for the annual report will affect both the type of report, the quantity necessary, and the budget required for its production. Every effort should be developed in such fashion as to get maximum public relations exposure as a result of the report's distribution. All donors, legislators, and members of news media, such as newspapers, radio and TV stations, etc., should be included. The report should be distributed to a selected list of public libraries and Chamber of Commerce offices. One never knows when a copy of an annual report will strike paydirt.

Theme of Report

After the distribution list has been determined, the editor, in conference with the president and other top management personnel, should review the possible theme or emphasis of the report.

Job assignments as to copy preparation and art work should be made. Details of production such as art work, engravings, and printing should be decided upon, and a production schedule established.

In preparing editorial copy, refrain from being uninspired in your writing. Avoid verbosity and wordiness. Keep sentences simple and brief. As one authority has suggested, keep to short sentences (average 17 to 22 words), to short paragraphs (7 to 9 lines), and to short words, whenever possible.

As one begins production of an annual report, it will soon become obvious that the mass of financial and statistical data must, in some way, be translated into a form that can be more readily understood. If understanding and comprehension is not achieved in reading an annual report, it has failed in its fundamental objective. The judicious use of graphs, charts, and tables will help.

Paul E. Becker, Jr., Controller, University of Delaware, recently addressed a group of business officers in the Eastern Association of College and University Business Officers on the subject of "Graphical Technics of Analysis and Re-

porting." Many of the points emphasized in his paper merit repeating at this time. To quote from Mr. Becker:

"More money is spent from business office budgets gathering data than from anything else. Most of the old figures do nothing but gather dust in file cabinets.

"True, the figures are used to prepare the balance sheet and expense statement for our annual reports. A few institutions add interest to these reports and bring some of the figures to life with well selected graphs. Convert the data to proper graphs, and the battle is all but won. The rewards are great and the procedures not complex.

"A graph, like inductive reasoning, accumulates these facts of the past in an effort to elucidate the present and estimate the future. It is a picture of a set of figures which requires no artistic nor mathematical skill to make or understand. For example, compare a list of places visited on an automobile trip with a map of the same trip. The map presents the same facts but tells us even more and does it easier and quicker and in a more interesting way. Graphs can do the same thing, and more, for that mass of data in your files. However, a graph does not think; it, too, represents or misrepresents with perfect impartiality. We must learn how to use graphs, and how not to abuse them."

Use of Charts and Graphs

It might be of help to briefly comment on different types of charts or graphs, both as to their use or limitations.

Bar Charts: These can be used in either the horizontal or vertical versions. There are no rules for choosing between them other than a matter of choice. This type of chart is excellent for showing group comparisons or differences.

Line or Time Series Charts: These show a trend over an extended period of time or more items through a certain period of time.

Area Charts: This type is good for pointing out the different components used in a time series chart. It is also excellent for line charts, providing the largest component is plotted at the bottom of the chart and is accented with the darkest pattern.

Pie Charts: Bold, first-glance impact is offered with this type of chart. It can be especially useful in illustrating percentage components of a whole unit.

To quote Becker again,

"Selection of the type of chart depends upon an analysis of the material. Certain types of charts are peculiarly suited to certain tasks. Tables or graphs should be used where comparisons are important, pictographs for visual impact, bars and pies for popular presentations. Complex methods should never be used if simple ones will do as well, but the simplest chart may mislead or actually misinform.

"No college is so small that its records do not provide data suitable for charting, and no data can fail to become more impressive, more revealing, and more readily understandable when correctly presented in graphic form. An increasing use of charts in college annual reports has been evident. Some are excellent, and even the poorer ones dress up the report and add interest. Much more could be done. In all of this, however, remember that charts can be a major help, but they are not a substitute for executive talent. Use them as a sober man uses lamp posts—for illumination, not for support."

An annual report is an excellent public relations tool if properly conceived and executed. It tells the public how well the institution has been managed during

(Continued on Page 40)

A Study of the Manual for Nonacademic Staff Members of Colleges and Universities

JOHN A. BAIRD, Jr.

A report made by class members in a Seminar on Research Problems in Higher Education, as offered by Professor George F. Donovan in the Graduate School of Education, The Catholic University of America.

During the first semester, 1960–1961, at the Catholic University of America, the Seminar in Higher Education, under the direction of Dr. George F. Donovan, undertook a study of the manual for nonacademic staff members of American colleges and universities. An earlier study dealing with the *faculty* manual in American colleges and universities prompted considerable interest on the part of respondents, seminar participants, and others who heard that such a study had been done. A study of the manual used by *nonacademic staff members* suggested itself.

The purposes of the present study were threefold:

1. To identify the present status of handbooks for nonacademic staff members, including their availability and distribution.

2. To study the format, content, and provisions for such handbooks.

3. To make recommendations which may lead to improvements in the form, content, policy, and distribution of such handbooks.

Definitions

The term, manual or handbook, is understood to mean an institutional publication designed to provide information, guidance, and other related materials for college and university staff members. Nonacademic staff members are personnel who are not engaged in educational administration, teaching, or research. Generally, the term applies to the secretarial, office, custodial, maintenance, and other similar employee groups.

Importance of Manual

The growing and complicated nature of American higher education, especially

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Members of the Seminar making this report: Mrs. Teresa Antony, Frank J. Bertalen, Sister M. Daniel Hausmann, O.S.B., George C. Hill, Sister M. Veronice Engelhardt, O.S.F., Reverend Robert E. Sullivan, O.M.I., and Sister M. Kathryn Zimmer, O.S.B.

in personnel relations among the nonacademic staff, suggests the need for a manual as a service to such persons; and institutional recognition of nonacademic personnel through new and added democratic procedures and values is a developing part of the American educational scene.

Procedure

Each member of the Seminar selected 30 colleges and universities located in at least three different states. As such, 22 states were selected, and the institutions represented all types. A form letter and a questionnaire check-list prepared by a Seminar committee were sent to the institutions. Information requested concerned recipients of such a manual, nature of distribution, date of first publication, and future plans. A copy of the manual, when available, was also requested.

Manuals received were analyzed by the individual members on the basis of evidence contained in the manuals, themselves, as to content, format, desirable features, and possible areas for improvement. Findings were presented to the entire group for further interpretation, comparison, and study. The Seminar committee drew up the present report coordinating the findings of the individual Seminar members.

Tabulation of Source Material

Number of institutions contacted	211
Number of institutions responding	156
Number of manuals received	50
Number of states represented	22

Of the institutions contacted, 74% responded, and 32% of the responding institutions furnished manuals.

Principal Observations

1. The response to the letters of request was gratifying and, in most instances, prompt. Many of the respondents—even those not planning such a manual—asked for one or more copies of the final report.

2. Although there were notable exceptions, there was a positive correlation between the size of the student body and the existence of a manual for the nonacademic staff.

3. There was little uniformity in the titles used; however, they often were somewhat informal, such as "You and Your Job."

4. Much of the content examined in the manuals was common to all the manuals; differences occurred in the amount of detail included and the type of presentation.

5. Over two-thirds of the institutions with such manuals had introduced them since 1950, one-fourth appearing for the first time in 1960.

6. Other than nonacademic staff, the officers of administration were most frequently listed as recipients of the manual. Others mentioned were the public relations officers, librarians, boards of trustees, department heads, supervisors, and union representatives.

7. Ordinarily the manual was distributed when the employee reported for employment and/or when employment was arranged and whenever the manual was revised.

8. Usually it was distributed in person by the Personnel Officer.

9. Frequently there was some statement regarding the purpose served by the manual within the institution.

10. The purposes of the institution itself appeared in about one-third of the manuals; often these were written in a challenging style, possibly originating with the president.

11. There was considerable variety in format and size. Most of the manuals were printed.

12. The tone of many of the manuals was such as would promote good interpersonnel relationships, often including line sketches or photographs to help tell their "story."

13. A few institutions gave evidence of having a manual with information that applied to all employees assembled in one publication; additional supplements were prepared by assembling information that applied only to certain specified groups and were distributed accordingly.

14. Where the educational institution was a state institution, the manual frequently originated in the State Department of Education or some other state office and applied to all such institutions within the state; occasionally, adaptations to the local institution were incorporated.

15. About one-fourth of the respondents offered the information that the request for information reminded them of the need for such a publication within their own institutions.

Recommended Features

1. An individual college or university would do well to consider the need for a manual for nonacademic staff within its own institution, taking into account the size of the institution, specific needs that might be met by a manual, other publications available, and institutional policy regarding publications in general.

2. Those responsible for planning a manual should decide if one comprehensive manual might serve for all employees, or if it might be better to develop a "core" kind of manual containing information about which all must be concerned and prepare additional supplements directed to particular groups employed within the institution.

3. The need for revision should be anticipated and planned.

4. The manual should be completely identified as to the name of the institution, location, title of publication, and date of publication.

5. There would appear to be value in including a brief history of the institution with its over-all philosophy and central purpose, in addition to the purpose to be accomplished by the manual.

6. Aids that should be considered, and possibly included, would be table of contents, index, campus maps, and simple sketches or photographs. One manual had a two-page spread picturing a check with each item carefully identified or explained.

7. Content areas which ought to be incorporated would be influenced by the nature of the institution, other publications already available, and specific purposes to be served by the manual.

8. A list of suggested items for the manual might be:

Title Page
Letter from the President (of the in-

stitution)
Table of Contents—some proposed topics as follows:
- History, Philosophy, Purposes (of the institution)
- Employment Policies
  - Hours of Work, Overtime
  - Absences, Leaves
  - Promotions, Transfers
  - Orientation to Employment
  - Rest Periods
  - Resignation, Retirement, Dismissal
- Wage Policies: Computation, Paydays, Source of Funds, Increases
- Benefits
  - Vacations, Holidays
  - Sick Leave, Excused Absences
  - Insurance Coverage (all types)
  - Social Security, Retirement Plan
  - Workmen's Compensation
  - First Aid
- Privileges
  - Cultural Events, College Courses, Library, Bookstore, Cafeteria, Parking, Health Service
- Responsibilities
  - To the Public: Verbal Communication, Mail, Telephone
  - To Other Personnel: Cooperation, Mature Attitudes, "Golden Rule"
  - Reporting of Problems
- Campus Map

Concluding Statement

Evidence gathered in the course of the study points to its timeliness. There appears to be a need for pursuing the topic with even greater penetration and depth. Possibly a guide for use in the preparation of such a manual could be developed. Some further coordination with the earlier study of the faculty manual suggests itself.

The Credit Union as an Added Benefit in the College and University

CHARLES A. HARKNESS

Are the benefits gained from the credit union sufficient to offset the effort required to make it a success? The University of Kansas made a study and found its answer.

The place of the credit union in the American economic scene has been much discussed in its 52 years of existence in the United States. Without entering into any portion of the discussion, as it might relate to economic theory, The University of Kansas recently undertook a study of the feasibility of promoting the establishment of a campus credit union as an added benefit to its faculty and staff. Are the benefits gained from the credit union sufficient to offset the effort required to make it a success?

Credit Union Movement

The credit union movement, itself, began in Germany in 1849, with the organization of Raiffeisen Societies, named for Friedrich Wilhelm Raiffeisen, the economist. These were people's credit societies, which Raiffeisen later (1864) refined into the credit union as it is known today. In 1900, Alphonse Desjardines brought the credit union to Quebec; and, in 1909, he, together with Edward Filene of Boston, established the first credit union in the United States at Manchester, New Hampshire.

The credit union movement on the campus began about 35 years ago. Since then, slightly less than 10% of the colleges and universities in the United States have founded credit unions for their faculty and staff members. In turn, these make up less than one per cent of the total credit unions in the United States. At the end of 1958, six per cent of all credit unions were identified with educational institutions at all instructional levels.

In all, 162 college and university credit unions exist within the United States. The sponsoring institutions range from seminaries to public and private universities. A few include employees of more than one educational institution level, but all can be identified with a specific institution above the high school level. (See adjoining table.)

Mr. Harkness serves as Personnel Director at The University of Kansas.

Geographical Distribution of College Credit Unions*

Area	*Total Number Credit Unions*	*Percentage Of Total*	*Number Of Replies To Questionnaire*
East	20	12	17
South and Southeast	42	26	35
Central and Midwest	49	30	40
Mountain and Southwest	34	21	20
Far West	17	11	14

* Geographical distribution is indicated in accordance with areas used in compiling data for "Personnel Practices in Colleges and Universities," College and University Personnel Association, 1958 edition, p. iv.

It is apparent that despite the origin of the credit union movement in the East, it has not met with its greatest success there. It is also worth noting that nearly half of the credit unions in existence over ten years are located in the South. Aside from this disparity, the movement in time has been from East to West. The majority of credit unions east of the Mississippi are over ten years old; the majority west of the Mississippi are under ten.

Membership

Credit union membership is available to possibly as many as 150,000 faculty and staff members. One university has separate credit unions for faculty and staff; one restricts membership to the staff. Otherwise, credit union membership is universally open to all regular campus employees; and, in some cases, to family members, students, and organizations of faculty or staff members.

A credit union is a group of people who agree to save their money together and to make loans to each other at low cost. Therefore, of as great importance as scope of membership is attractiveness of membership. The incentive to join is the investment of savings; the decision to borrow is based upon the ease with which a loan can be made and the attractiveness of the loan.

College and university credit unions are all easy to join, easy to borrow from, and attractive to both investor and borrower. Only seven college credit unions delay admission to membership beyond appointment to a permanent faculty or staff position. By comparison, industrial and commercial credit unions delay membership by six months to a year following employment. Obviously, the membership committees recognize the stability of the college community.

Credit committees recognize this same stability factor in making loans. Three-fourths of the credit unions will make loans to a person immediately upon becoming a member. The remainder require a one- to six-month wait; the six-month delay is required in 17 institutions for loans to nonacademic employees only; almost all of these will loan to faculty members immediately.

Membership presents no financial burden, either. No college credit union requires the purchase of more than one share of stock ($5.00) for full membership; a very few state, "We are eager to loan," will extend full membership (borrowing) privileges with the purchase of only a portion of a share.

This lack of restraint in accepting nearly unknown persons into membership, and then immediately accepting these same unknown's loan applications, must have some reason beyond the known

stability of the college community. Possibly one credit union treasurer expressed the sentiments of all: "We find our greatest demand (for loans) comes from the new faculty and staff member who must meet the expenses of settling in a new community prior to the receipt of his first pay check."

Loan Terms

Albeit, the credit union is willing and eager to loan; so are other lending institutions in the community. Are credit union loan terms attractive to the borrower?

No credit union charges more than one per cent interest per month on the unpaid balance of the loan; more than ten per cent charge less. Federal credit unions may loan up to $750 on personal signature and up to ten per cent of the total assets of the credit union with security. Credit unions may allow up to five years for repayment of the principal.

In practice, college credit unions are slightly more conservative than the maximums noted. Only half will loan more than $500 without security; one-fourth will allow an unsecured note to run longer than thirty months.

Secured, or chattel, note terms are more favorable. One-third of the credit unions charge less than one per cent per month interest, and 109 of the 126 credit unions answering the questionnaire will loan more than $2,000. Ten of these will loan up to three-fourths of the value of the chattel, six up to two-thirds, and one up to one-half of the purchase price. Two credit unions arrange for fleet purchase of automobiles. Over ninety per cent will allow a chattel note to run thirty months or more; one-fourth will allow it to run for five years.

The Federal credit union law, and apparently most state laws, prohibit real property mortgages. An obvious drawback to making real estate loans is the money that is tied up for an extended period of time. Considering, further, that not over ten per cent of the total assets of a credit union may be loaned to one person, it is apparent that real mortgages should not be considered with capital of less than $500,000. Among the twelve credit unions making true real property loans, interest rates, loan value, and repayment terms all appear to be comparable to commercial loan interests in the geographic area. Twenty-five credit unions make home improvement loans at more favorable rates than those for a chattel mortgage.

Attractiveness to Investor

Earlier we noted that college credit unions had a potential membership of approximately 150,000. Is the credit union attractive from the investors' point of view?

The answering colleges were arbitrarily divided into two groups, depending on whether their potential membership was more or less than 500 faculty and staff members. Sixty-one colleges fell in the "large" group; 65 in the "small" group. No "small" college credit union has more than $500,000 in outstanding share capital; as a group, they have $6,225,000 in share capital. The "large" group has a total of $26,027,000, with seven having over one million dollars in share capital. As a group, the large credit unions have 88% of the value of their share capital on loan, with 13 having total loans outstanding in excess of their capital. The small credit unions have 94% of share capital value on loan, with 23 having

loans valued in excess of capital.

Dividend rates vary to the extreme. One treasurer noted that after three years operation, his organization planned to pay its first dividend. Another noted that his credit union had paid a four per cent dividend after six months of operation. The dividend rate is the decision of the Board of Directors; it cannot be an easy one, particularly in a new credit union. Should the union accumulate a surplus to strengthen it? Or, should the union declare a dividend as soon as possible to aid in attracting new share capital? Generally, it appears that dividends of four to five per cent per annum are common in established credit unions, and many are so healthy as to refund up to half the interest collected in addition to paying a dividend.

Service of Members

However, the credit union is not so simple as investing money soundly at a good rate of return, or borrowing at favorable interest rates with a minimum of delay and inconvenience. Someone must do some work.

An individual receives from a credit union only what he and his associates are willing to give in time and energy. Members must expect to serve as treasurer (the only paid position), or as members of credit, education, or examining committees, or of the Board of Directors, as called upon.

Credit unions are self-sustaining. All operating expenses are paid by the union, although rent-free quarters are often provided by the sponsoring college. This may provide the credit union with some advantage over the commercial loan company, although one treasurer noted that his organization did not really attain status, and with it growth, until it moved to off-campus quarters.

Tireless dedication to a cause seems the key to success of a credit union. Until capital reaches $20,000, the Treasurer cannot expect more than a nominal salary. At $50,000, he may receive part-time clerical assistance. Not until capital reaches $250,000 can the average Treasurer expect full-time clerical assistance, and only the largest credit unions have a full-time Treasurer. Lacking college administration cooperation in the form of payroll deductions for both savings additions and loan repayments, and reduced teaching or administrative load, the Treasurer's job can be deadly.

Treasurers were free with their comments on the success of their credit union and with the offering of advice:

"An unqualified success."

"Our education committee has not worked hard enough."

"The (college) administration attitude has helped us and has helped itself by relieving the personal financial problems of employees."

"Payroll deductions are the keys to building share holdings and also to successful loan repayments."

Size of College

Among other factors influencing success would appear to be the size of the college. Already noted is the difference in percentage of share capital on loan. The small college also has a membership closer to its potential than has the large college. Fifty per cent of the staff and 55% of the faculty in the average small college are credit union members; 45% of the staff and 40% of the faculty in the average large college are members.

(Continued on Page 26)

Pay for Work and NOT for Work Histories

C. WALLACE LOTT

Do you employ at higher than the minimum salary of the range when the applicant possesses more qualifications than the job demands?

At a recent personnel meeting, one problem which was presented could have been entitled "Do you employ at higher than the minimum salary of the range when the applicant possesses more qualifications than the job demands?" My mind went back to an Association Conference, during which a very learned speaker exhorted his audience "to find the basic problem of a question and define it before attempting any solution." I took the thought home with me, and the basic problem hunt was on; it resolved itself when I found the following words of Dr. M. J. Jucius: "Before a plan of remuneration can be successfully developed, it is essential to understand clearly why employees are paid. . . . Employees are paid for their efforts irrespective of their ultimate value for usefulness." [1]

This quotation cleared the stage. I was now ready to say, "Let us discuss our problem, because we have delved deeply enough and found the basic problem." Dr. Jucius finds the basic problem, and defines it when he next asks a question and answers it:

"What are the efforts for which labor is paid?" The following is the answer:

"1. Time spent on work

"2. Energy—physical, mental, emotional

"3. Willingness to cooperate." [2]

We have now the basic problem; we have defined it. "Let us work ourselves up by exploration, gestation, ideas, illumination, verification, and application" —another quote from our Association speaker.

Time Spent on Work

During the course of an interview, an applicant is going to be very reluctant to state to the interviewer that in previous jobs he was always late for work, always left before others, and used all his sick leave benefits, even though he wasn't

Mr. Lott is Job Analyst, Clemson Agricultural College, and is currently serving as Chairman of the Southern Section of our Association.

[1] Jucius, Michael J., *Personnel Management.* Chicago: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1950, p. 363.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 364.

ill. A reference letter would uncover this, but do we want to pay this applicant a higher starting salary if he did have good attendance, was always on time, did not leave work before others, and used his sick leave only when he was ill? No, of course not. Good attendance is a condition of the job.

Energy—Physical

We hire people to work a certain number of hours per day, part of a day, week, month, or year. The laborer exerts more physical energy than a clerk. Physical energy is not measured nor does it become a factor in our clerical jobs to any great extent.

Energy—Mental

Employment tests are the ultimate criteria to be considered in hiring personnel. Suffice it to say that as we interview our applicant, this factor is the one which must be looked at more closely than any other, because it is the factor which is in question. However, mental energy or ability does not stand alone, and disregarding appearance, manners, neatness, and other attributes that appear before us, and housing the mental energy we must evaluate, our own prejudices and eyes will sway us one way or another.

Energy—Emotional

Unless we have before us an applicant who is at the low or high extremes of emotion, there is no trained interviewer that can evaluate, even closely, this energy and put a price on it.

Willingness to Cooperate

How many times a day do interviewers hear the old hackneyed phrase from the applicant, "Oh, I just love meeting people." This willingness to cooperate presents a prejudice for all of us. Does work history show willingness to cooperate? Do employment tests show willingness to cooperate? If we determine he is willing to cooperate, is that any assurance that he will continue to do so, or will have the opportunity in his new job? Do we have a factor in our job questionnaire, or classification program whereby we can measure willingness to cooperate?

Willingness to Expend Energy

It might seem on the surface that time and exertion are the only factors in determining wages. Obviously, time is a factor, since production results take time. And results depend, too, upon application of various types of energy. But anyone who has worked, or watched people work, soon realizes that very often willingness to expend energy is perhaps the most important factor for which people are paid wages. How, then, can an employment interviewer determine from an applicant's amount of work history whether or not the applicant can expend more energy for which he should be paid on a new job?

Establishment of Pay Levels

Dr. Jucius also states: "When wages are given their proper place in a personnel program, they are neither over-emphasized nor under-emphasized. Wages alone cannot bring about higher production, better morale, and better relations with employees. Non-financial incentives, proper handling of grievances, good working conditions, availability of various services, and development of confidence in workers are examples of other matters that can add or detract from the efficiency

of the wage program itself." [3]

Pigors and Myers have this to say about wage and salary levels: "Wage and salary levels, internal relationships, and methods of payment should not be left to chance or to the changing pressures of the labor market." [4] This clearly indicates that if the Personnel Department has received an application from a prospective employee who would not accept the going rate, the Department should not permit this particular individual to become a part of a change which would effect the level of hiring of other employees. It is very true that you cannot satisfy everyone, so if the vast majority of applicants do accept the salary ranges offered by the position, one or two prospective employees, whom you may fail to secure, would not be worth an ever-changing minimum starting rate.

The ultimate purpose of job evaluation is the assignment of a money value to each job in line with its established difficulty and importance. This does not say the assignment of a money value to qualification of applicants. Once again, qualifications do not insure job success, because the applicants, themselves, do not give you a fair or sufficiently detailed job description of the duties which they have previously performed to be of help in determining their exact value. Employees often fail to describe truthfully their educational and work experience histories. Some of them may have worked for relatives on a part-time basis, yet list this experience as full-time employment. Dates of employment are oftentimes incorrect. Because an applicant worked in a position and was promoted is not a basis, in itself, for considering that the employee was satisfactory.

One purpose of job evaluation is to build a job structure in which all jobs with equivalent, although not necessarily similar, skills and training are on a level. If a separate evaluation is made for each applicant, rather than for each job, an uneven pay structure will result. However, job analysis and job evaluation do not replace judgment in the administration of a pay structure. They do provide facts, insofar as facts can be obtained, on which management and employees may base their decisions, and decisions thus made should be far sounder than those based on general impressions. Whether or not the collection of facts through job analysis is a management function, or a joint responsibility of management and employees, is not nearly so important as whether management and employees are willing to abide by the facts once they have been determined, even if they result in decisions contrary to the desires of either group. All too often job analyses have been used to substantiate a point of view, rather than to secure facts upon which a point of view can be established. If orderly procedures in wage administration are to be developed, the discovery and use of job facts are essential.

Different Pay Rates for Each Job

It is possible to have a different pay rate for each job. This method of wage payment is usually used in situations where the rate for each position is determined without using a job classification plan. In this situation each job is proved individually, and there might be

[3] Jucius, Michael J., *op. cit.*, p. 337.

[4] Pigors, Paul and Myers, Charles A., *Personnel Administration, A Point of View and a Method,* New York: McGraw-Hill, 1956. (Third Edition), p. 277.

as many rates as there are individual jobs. It can be seen that such a procedure would result in a very complicated wage structure, which would be difficult to administer. It would also be true that this method would tend to promote wage inequities, because each job would be subject either to individual or collective bargaining, and equality of bargaining strength would be difficult to maintain. Supervisors and executives would tend to favor one job over another, so that inequities would result throughout wage administration practices. If we have inequities in starting salaries based on individual differences in *amounts* of qualifications, as may be presented by the applicants in applying for jobs, we will end up with many pay inequities. The obvious result would be very low employee morale.

Placement Within Pay Levels

The problem of placing employees at various points within pay ranges is somewhat complicated. Theoretically, in a merit system of pay administration, an employee may be placed at any point within the salary range in relation to his effectiveness on the job, as compared to other employees performing the same job. Actually, however, the merit system usually operates by providing for an increasing rate when the employee exhibits sufficient proficiency or improvement to merit the increase in pay under the rules by which the system is operated. When the employee does not continue to show improvement, his proficiency actually decreases. The usual practice in this situation is to deny a merit increase without decreasing the rate. It would be possible, with complete freedom in the use of the rate range, to distribute workers within each rate range on the basis of relative proficiency on the job on which they are working. The most efficient workers would be at the top of their respective ranges, while those who were least efficient would be at, or near, the bottom of the range, with the others distributed in between. Therefore, to give an applicant more money than a minimum starting salary, when he has not proven his efficiency or mental capacities on the job, is courting disaster with your ranges. His efficiency on the job is proven after he has served a probationary period of time.

Turnover

Let us now digress a bit to discuss turnover and the reasons for turnover, for surely turnover reflects the success of our hiring techniques.

The Bureau of Municipal Research of Syracuse, New York, reports that most turnover occurs in the first two years of service. The *Monthly Labor Review* reports that clerical turnover occurs in from 1.8 years to 2.2 years. The U.S. Department of Labor reports that about two years is as long as they can expect to keep their clerical workers. This, I may point out, is despite the fact that our Government averages $90 per week in pay over the average of $75 per week for industry. The *Monthly Labor Review* indicates the causes for turnover as being, in order of their importance—(a) pregnancy, (b) marriage, (c) further education, and (d) better job.

Pick up almost any book on personnel administration, and turn to the chapter dealing with turnover, and I can safely predict that none will list "a better job" or "more money" as the first cause for turnover.

The U.S. Department of Labor has provided a breakdown in personnel costs resulting from turnover. Citing an example of a clerical position, which pays $3000 per year, they show: turnover cost—$150; training investment in a new hire—$500; capital investment depreciation per employee—$450; and fringe benefits—$740.

Experience, Ability, and Hiring Rates

What is our increased cost when we hire at more than the minimum of the salary range? Does it compensate for, or is it worth the different costs as related above? Turnover cost increases, and training investments cannot decrease.

Is it good sense to pay all year long for an employee to learn more quickly? Yet, that is what we do when we pay more than the minimum salary to a new employee. The applicant has more experience than what the job demands, so we compensate in our thinking for payment above the minimum by saying he will learn more quickly than an employee with the minimum qualifications. We may argue that it takes the average employee three months to learn the job, that the employee with more experience can learn the job in one month, and therefore we pay him a higher beginning salary for chopping off two months of training time, and we continue to pay this bonus as long as he is with us.

Don't forget the morale factor with other employees when you place an applicant with qualifications and abilities which are above those demanded by the job. Co-workers are the first to receive the brunt of such a placement, with the new employee assuring others that this job was the best the Personnel Department could get for him, while at the same time his efficiency on the job allows more time for him to talk and interrupt other workers, and to concern himself with other peoples' business. Then back he comes in about three months to let you know he is not happy, and it's all your fault. To place an employee in a job which requires less ability than the employee possesses is just as dangerous as to place an underqualified employee in a job demanding higher skills and responsibilities.

A secretary, with three years of experience, was hired for $2400 per year. She worked in the position for two years and received two merit increases, which brought her salary up to $2580. The Personnel Department, being pressured for a replacement secretary across the hall from the $2580 girl, hired an applicant with five years of experience at the mid-point of the range, which was $2700 per year. Both jobs were at the same level. The secretary at $2580 quit the next month. Multiply this same situation for every time someone has been placed above the minimum, and you still would not be able to see the result of such actions. Many employees would say nothing, but the morale factor would certainly be in evidence in their work.

Solution

How did one institution arrive at a solution? *No one is now employed above the minimum of the salary range.*

I believe fear plays a part in our determinations to pay higher than the minimum salary for applicants with more work history than what the job demands. We are afraid that we will lose a good applicant; we are afraid that the employers, whom we serve, will think less of our office. We may lose some good

employees, but the discontent we may avoid is worth it. We somewhat defeat the purpose of striving for well-rounded personnel functions in our offices when we accept applicants who are only able to see the dollar signs. I am not sure we aren't a little prejudiced against this kind of applicant.

There are institutions that have become anxious and paid more than the minimum and soon found themselves embroiled in more difficulties than the result of just losing applicants. They have returned to the minimum starting salary. Other institutions are now paying more money for more applicants. Never fear, your personnel policies become known soon enough with employees, and you will never know the complete picture of dissatisfaction among employees.

One personnel officer told me he would like to dispense with paying the mid-point of the range, and when it was suggested he use merit increases, he objected because he knew of no way to judge merit correctly. I would much rather work on a good merit system than accept paying the mid-point as the cure.

Not being capable of measuring exactly what we are paying for, and with the knowledge that more pay is not the prime reason for turnover, the cost and the morale factors involved do not appear to justify the end. We have yet to find the institution that can say turnover has decreased as a result of paying higher than the minimum salary. More contact and better communications with our present employees and more care in presenting our orientation of applicants and new employees give us concrete motivation in our placement work. When we have a crutch to fall back on, time condemns us to use it more often.

A system of probation and merit increase appears to be the answer. To award, and thereby recognize, an employee on the job for the work he is doing provides incentive and is a highly important morale building factor.

Credit Union . . .

(Continued from Page 20)

Opposition

Opposition to the credit union does not appear strong, at least in the comments of the Treasurers. The most common notation was that trustees who were also bank board members, often provided the greatest opposition (and sometimes ultimately became the greatest champions of the credit union). The second greatest source of opposition appears to come from the college administration itself, with no reason apparent other than personal prejudice. Thirty-one of the reporting credit unions were less than three years old. Such a figure would not indicate massive opposition to the formation of a new credit union.

Summary

It would appear that a credit union on the campus can provide a needed and desirable service, provided that a group of persons can be found who are willing to devote a large measure of their free time to promoting that service.

Secretarial and Clerical Personnel Selection

WILLIAM P. ANGERS, ALEX BEDROSIAN,
and A. PEMBERTON JOHNSON

An evaluation of a three-year study of a selection technique for employment of secretarial and clerical staff indicates the advantages of basing decisions on placement above the personal judgment level.

Many college and university administrative officers are interested in the selection and employment of the best available applicants to fill secretarial and clerical positions. A selection program was inaugurated at Newark College of Engineering on July 1, 1957 by the Assistant Dean of Administration, in cooperation with the Director of the Counseling Center.

The procedure used with each applicant, a description of the tests administered, and certain useful findings were reported in an earlier article.[1] The purpose of this study was to consider in detail the effectiveness of such a program in a three-calendar-year period, 1958–1960.

During this time, 250 job applicants had been interviewed, of which only 122, or about 50%, were tested and interviewed by the Director (or one of the counselors) of the Counseling Center, and 33, or 27%, were hired. These included 23 secretaries, 4 general clerks, 3 finance clerks, and 1 finance secretary.

When the scores of the 53 who were offered a position by the Assistant Dean of Administration were compared with the scores of the 69 who were not offered a position at the College, there were striking differences between the two groups. Those who were offered a position had higher estimated I.Q.'s, had greater speed and accuracy in the handling of clerical details (checking and filing), had an easier facility in verbalizing clerical detail (spelling, reading, grammar, and vocabulary), had greater ability for the numerical handling of clerical de-

Mr. Angers serves as Counseling Psychologist, Mr. Bedrosian as Assistant Dean of Administration, and Mr. Johnson as Director of the Counseling Center, Newark College of Engineering.

[1] Bedrosian, Alex and Lewis, Frank H., "The Evaluation of the Uses of Tests in the Selection of Secretarial Personnel," *The Journal of the College and University Personnel Association,* vol. 11, May, 1960, pp. 14–16.

Summary Data for Secretarial and Clerical Applicants Tested in the Three Calendar Years, 1958, 1959, 1960

	Range	Average (Mean)	S.D.	S.E. Mean	"t" ratio (a)	Number of Persons
I. Q. (Terman-McNemar)						
Offered a Position	96-132	110.71	8.36	1.15		53
					10.58*	
Not Offered a Position	71-114	94.72	8.18	.99		69
General Psychological Clerical Speed and Accuracy						
Offered a Position	29- 95	52.47	11.91	1.68		51
					3.70*	
Not Offered a Position	7- 70	44.14	12.36	1.51		68
Verbal						
Offered a Position	41-100	75.64	12.40	1.77		50
					8.26*	
Not Offered a Position	11- 92	55.38	13.30	1.70		62
Numerical (Usually taken only by Finance Department applicants)						
Offered a Position	15- 53	37.20	10.00	3.33		10
					5.79*	
Not Offered a Position	10- 74	26.08	16.91	5.10		12

Personality	*No.*		
Offered a Position			
Favorable	50		
Doubtful	1		
No Test	2	Total	53
Not Offered a Position			
Favorable	10		
Doubtful	22		
Unfavorable	34		
No Test	3	Total	69

(a) "t" ratio $= \frac{\text{difference of means}}{\text{S.E. difference}}$

* Ratios so marked indicate 99% certainty of a non-chance or true difference in means.

tails (addition, subtraction, etc.), and presented favorable personality traits, both in the interviews and on a test of personality. These differences between the two groups were statistically significant at the 1% level of confidence (i.e., there was 99% certainty of a non-chance or true difference between the means). These data are presented in the accompanying Table.

The results obtained from this study, not only confirm the "findings" of the previous evaluation, but, in addition, point up the following key features of the program:

1. Those offered employment and those employed were significantly better qualified than those not employed.

2. Those receiving offers were markedly more verbal than those not receiving offers.

3. Unfavorable and doubtful personality traits (such as hostility, uncooperativeness, shyness (for certain positions), emotional instability, and lack of energy) accounted for many applicants not receiving offers.

Furthermore, since the inauguration of this program, the following related features have been noted:

1. The secretarial school or referral agency refers better applicants and supplies more complete information about them.

2. A better basis has been established for matching the employee to the person for whom she will work.

3. It is now possible to choose inexperienced girls with potential abilities.

4. The program provides a means of identifying girls with personality problems *before* instead of *after* employment.

5. Not one of the 33 girls hired under the new procedure has had to be discharged for unsatisfactory work.

6. In some instances, where an otherwise promising girl had a weakness in spelling or grammar, it is now possible to point this out to her and her prospective superior with the understanding that she will correct this weakness on her own as soon as possible.

CUPA's bookshelf . . . . . .

Working with Groups, by Walter M. Lifton, John Wiley and Sons, Inc., New York, 1960, 238 pages.

A practical reason for studying methods of group work arises from the statement that "every day . . . laymen and professionals alike find themselves thrust into group environments." Further, a growing demand for skill in the effectiveness of working through groups arises from the realization that there are some peculiar growth experiences available to individuals in groups that are not present in a one-to-one relationship.

The philosophy and theory of group process, as outlined in this book, describes personality as ever-changing and holds that, in dealing with an individual, it is impossible to divide your relationship into levels. This permits terms, such as teaching, counseling, or psychotherapy, to be used interchangeably in discussing the kinds of relationships that need to be developed in a group to achieve the goal of individual growth. This point of view makes it possible to draw from both the fields of education and psychology in attempts to explore the problems and skills associated with group-leadership skills.

These hypotheses about the nature of personality and ways to achieve behavior change represent the theoretical position of the text.

1. To help people we need to start with their perception of a situation.

2. Help is most useful if it is initially directed toward the problem causing an individual (or group) the most immediate concern.

3. Individuals have an innate capacity to heal themselves, if they are provided a setting where they can feel secure enough to examine their problems.

4. As an individual is helped to feel more secure, his need to shut out unwanted bits of information decreases. As he broadens his conception of the problem he must by necessity include the values and attitudes expressed by society. Particularly, in a group setting, this means that the solution to a problem, although it starts out as egocentric, must ultimately resolve the paradox that man can only meet his needs through others.

5. A change in any part of an individual's life affects all other aspects of his being. A new perception today can cause all past experiences to have a different meaning.

Applying these beliefs, a section in the book considers the ways people may be helped in group situations.

Of particular value to the student of

group relationships is a transcription of an actual group in action. Each page of this section is presented with actual group comments on the left and interpretive statements on the right.

An interesting and unusual feature is the appendix, which includes full notes taken by a group member as he recorded his progress in each group meeting. The purpose of this section is to acquaint the reader with the stages through which a group may pass as it progresses from its start to its termination.

In these 238 pages is centered the most complete and varied treatment possible of examining group operation and development. For both the beginner and the professional, interested in learning more about the effectiveness of working with groups, this book will have great value.

Charles A. Ernst
Personnel Director
University of Rochester

Foundations of Guidance, by Dr. Carroll H. Miller, United States Office of Education, First Edition, 1961, Harper and Brothers, 49 East 33rd Street, New York 16, New York.

It appears that this text was written specifically for persons specializing in educational guidance. However, much of the information contained can be very useful when adapted to placement and employee counseling. By its very nature, a book of this type contains numerous references to mass surveys with their accompanying statistical tables. In addition, much of the reading is technical in nature. In spite of these factors, the book is an interesting discussion of the field of guidance and is relatively easy to read and to understand.

In the earlier chapters the author defines and sets up clear-cut frames of reference for various aspects of the field of guidance. Next, he discusses the effects on the aspirations and objectives of the individual of items, such as Rural and Urban Culture, Social Class Values, Values of Ethnic Groups, Occupational Mobility and Prestige, and Social Stratification. This entire area of the book is very interesting and can be helpful when applied to employment situations.

The author then traces the development of educational and vocational guidance from their informal origin by Comenius in the early seventeenth century to their present-day formal concepts. Again, a person familiar with the field of Personnel can note the beginnings of some of our present-day techniques in this historical development.

The next portion is almost entirely devoted to educational guidance. Many studies of pre-high school and high school groups are described in which the effects of various stages of mental growth and development on changing interests are considered.

The final portion of the book concerns the application of general aptitude, special aptitude, and interest tests to large groups. Of special interest are the studies involving the use of the Strong Vocational Interest Blank and the Kuder Preference Record in both academic and employment situations. In the discussions of many of these studies the author places special emphasis on the validity of the findings of these projects. Much of the information summarized by the author in this section will be very helpful to persons dealing with problems of em-

ployee placement and employee guidance.

James Morgan
Assistant Director of Personnel
University of Maryland

"Industry's Interest in the Older Worker and the Retired Employee," *Proceedings* of a Conference, Benefits and Insurance Research Center, Industrial Relations Section, California Institute of Technology, BIRC Publication No. 13, May 1960. (Edited by Michael T. Wermel and Geraldine M. Beideman.)

This publication reviews five of the reports presented at a conference, March 22, 1960, at California Institute of Technology. The very fact that such a conference took place is indicative of growing interest in the subject, and recognition of the need to more than just acknowledge the problems of the "older worker and the retired employee."

By problems, we think in terms of older people being "pushed" into retirement and being unprepared for the new type of life which necessarily follows.

A realistic picture of today's labor force, and tomorrow's even more so, indicates a substantial increase in the number of older workers. A longer period spent in retirement emphasizes the whole problem of personnel in retirement. Employers must face up to the problem of utilization of the older worker and preparation of employees for retirement.

Employees can be guided to elect retirement gracefully and willingly. Insecurity stemming from financial worries and from the worry of what to do in retirement can be the cause of unrest and the dread of retirement. Proper guidance and substantial benefits provided to employees, when begun early enough in the employee's career, can alleviate this insecurity and can increase the level of morale and productivity on the job.

James N. Ewart
Director of Personnel
California Institute of Technology

Essentials of Effective Writing, by Vincent F. Hopper and Cedric Gale, Barron's Educational Series, Inc., Great Neck, New York, 1961, 224 pages, $1.50 (paper).

Practice for Effective Writing, by Vincent F. Hopper and Cedric Gale, Barron's Educational Series, Inc., Great Neck, New York, 1961, 192 pages, $1.50 (paper).

The answer to the vexing question of why Johnny can't write was probably given some years ago in a retort attributed to Booth Tarkington. When a youthful admirer paid him a somewhat dubious compliment to the effect that his books were such easy reading, the celebrated novelist replied, "Easy reading, my boy, means damned hard writing."

The authors of this new composition text and accompanying practice book, who have both taught composition for many years at New York University, are convinced that there is no slick or easy way to learn how to write. They recall that the outstanding speaking and writing ability possessed by the early American statesmen and divines was based on years of intensive study and practice of what was then called rhetoric, a subject which combined rigorous training in logic and close examination of words,

sentence structure, and paragraph development.

This kind of careful training in the art of effective writing went by the boards when schools became overcrowded and, simultaneously, the novelties of progressive education were being enthusiastically and uncritically adopted. Immediate delightful relief for overworked teachers of overloaded classes was provided in that the "marking" of most compositions could be accomplished by simply glancing at a student theme and writing "Good" at the top of the paper.

Happily, times have changed and, happily, it is now clearly recognized that the art of effective expression comes naturally to few. But with the best will in the world, many of today's teachers, themselves the products of progressive education, are simply not equipped to teach composition effectively. And most public and some private schools continue to be so understaffed that it has been estimated by Dr. Paul B. Diederich of the Educational Testing Service that "high school English teachers foolhardy enough to assign students one composition a week would have to spend every weekday night until midnight, plus nine hours each on Saturday and Sunday, just correcting the papers." Crowded high schools, he warned, will soon reduce to four a year the average number of English compositions written by students. (*New York Times,* August 28, 1960.) The result of this wide-spread and notorious deficiency in high school English training is that many otherwise gifted students are denied admission to college because of their inability to write with even a reasonable degree of correctness. Others are admitted, but are required to take a remedial course in writing in their freshman year, a course usually called "Idiot's English" by their more fortunate classmates.

Although *Essentials of Effective Writing* and *Practice for Effective Writing* were created expressly for college freshman composition courses (remedial or otherwise), they offer a complete self-teaching course for the teen-ager or adult. Aware of the haphazard preparation of so many high school students, the authors have created an intensive course which takes nothing for granted. The text begins with an examination of "The Word" (the parts of speech and all special problems connected with nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc.), then proceeds to analysis of sentence structure and paragraph development, and concludes with instruction in the writing of complete compositions.

The novel idea of supplementing the text with a practice book is an important part of this carefully designed training program. Starting at the beginning, the student reads a section of the *Essentials,* then tries himself out by doing the corresponding exercise or exercises in *Practice,* referring back to the manual when he is uncertain or whenever his original reading has been so careless that the principle has eluded him. The *Practice* book ensures the solid and exact knowledge that comes only by actual performance, so that the student may proceed with the certainty that each step has been mastered before going on to the next. The *Practice* book is provided with perforated sheets which can be torn out and submitted to a teacher, a parent, or a fellow student for rapid and easy grading. When the course is completed, the *Essentials* remains intact as a reference book for all future occasions when ques-

tions concerning correctness, punctuation, footnote techniques, etc., arise. To that end the manual is equipped with a rapid reference chart inside the front cover that directs the reader to the answers to his most frequently asked questions and usually obviates the necessity of searching through the complete index at the end of the book.

Anyone who is groping for certainty in the art of written expression will be delighted by this unusual combination of clear and exact explanations and the opportunity for immediate practice. Here will be found the best techniques for organizing materials, for arranging words in a sentence for clarity and emphasis, for ordering sentences in a paragraph that says sharply and exactly what is meant, for supplying transitions to lead the reader from paragraph to paragraph, from beginning to end, with the sense of reading pleasure that only the trained writer can provide.

Personnel Directors who are concerned with the paucity of training in composition which their stenographic and clerical staff are receiving prior to employment will find in these inexpensive volumes a way of establishing an in-service training technique for their staffs. Twenty to thirty minutes a day of an employee's time spent in systematic progress through this course will guarantee that basic principles are understood, will serve to detect the areas of weakness, and will forestall that letter from the college which evidences "that Susie's (or her boss') deficiency in writing ability. . ." is showing.

*"Position Classification After Fifty Years," by Vernon C. Mickelson, Professor and Head of Department of Management, Case Institute, Cleveland, Ohio, *Personnel Administration,* March–April, 1961, pp. 11–16.

Current changes in organization theory and practice, this author contends, threaten to create a "break-through" in established methods of job classification. Traditionally, each individual position has been examined from two viewpoints: upward—in terms of authority, responsibility, and independence of action resulting from supervision, policy, or some other guideline; downward—with reference to the number of persons supervised and the nature of the supervision.

Most job-classification procedures assume that power flows downward from the apex of the organization structure and that the source of responsibility and matching authority is the next higher level in the hierarchy of supervision. Increased use of electronic data-processing equipment is cited as one of several recent developments threatening to invalidate this assumption. The electronic computer may substitute recorded information as the source of power in place of the supervisor.

The job analyst of the future, this author believes, will place more reliance upon the computer and less reliance upon formal, detailed, and mechanical guides in classifying positions. He will become increasingly dependent upon specialized knowledge enabling him to understand and evaluate the findings of scientists and engineers.

*"Executive Development Plan for Personnel Directors," by John B. Coyle,

* Prepared for THE JOURNAL by Robert Mears.

Director of Industrial Relations, Al Green Enterprises, Inc., Detroit, Michigan, *Personnel Journal*, May 1961, pp. 10–11.

The personnel director rarely attains the same status in an organization as directors of other major activities, such as engineering, production, finance, or merchandising. Why? This author suggests the following possible explanations:

1. Functions of the personnel director are neither precisely defined nor clearly understood. Some of his associates may consider him merely an employment interviewer or a record-keeper—and their conclusions may be correct.

2. Many personnel directors have gravitated into their jobs without any formal training. There is no established pattern of preparation for such an assignment and no clearly defined path of progression leading to this position.

3. Personnel directors are not generally regarded as business managers with organizational and administrative ability or as executives whose principal concerns are efficiency and profit.

For personnel directors who wish to realize their full potential in executive development, and to help in raising the standards of their profession, the author submits the following suggestions:

1. Apply recognized principles of good management in all administrative decisions.

2. Examine every activity from the viewpoint of economy and productivity.

3. In all contacts within the organization, apply human-relations skills. Teach more by example and less by words.

4. Speak up on fundamental issues. Command the respect essential to leadership.

5. Plan for long-term development and training of subordinates.

6. Formulate realistic and attainable objectives. Communicate these objectives to superiors and associates. Work toward their attainment systematically and make frequent reports of progress.

7. Increase knowledge of sound personnel principles and practices through continuing study and by participating in activities of personnel associations.

8. Strive constantly for personal improvement. Those who are mentally alert, spiritually sound, physically strong, and emotionally mature are most likely to win and hold positions of leadership.

*"When an Employee Dies," by J. Roger O'Meara, Division of Personnel Administration, National Industrial Conference Board, *Management Record*, February 1961, pp. 14–24.

In most organizations, various responsibilities are assigned to the personnel director when an employee dies. The majority of these responsibilities involve relatively simple tasks which benefit both the organization and the survivors. These tasks should be performed promptly, accurately, and with appropriate dignity and sympathy.

Some organizations have prepared written statements describing the duties of the personnel office and other departments when an employee dies. Specific duties assigned to personnel departments in 42 of these statements, summarized by the author, include the following:

Assemble pertinent facts to complete records of the organization; notify other departments concerned to accelerate pay-

* Prepared for THE JOURNAL by Robert Mears.

ment of all death benefits provided for survivors; process termination papers; discuss with supervisors, as the representatives of the organization, all matters of mutual concern; secure death certificate in order to effect payment of insurance benefits; notify Social Security Board and advise survivors how to obtain Social Security benefits; if death was caused by an accident on company property, notify proper state authorities; offer to assist family of the deceased in completing funeral arrangements; prepare bulletin-board announcement about funeral services; arrange for delivery of flowers or for a donation to the charity suggested by survivors; write a letter of condolence; arrange release of deceased's personal possessions to designated beneficiary; visit family of deceased after funeral to determine whether additional financial aid or other assistance is needed.

Notes and Quotes . . .

(Continued from Page ii)

gram to provide "equal pay for equal work." The following factors shall be considered in determining specific salary rates:

Kind of work and level of responsibility

Salaries paid in private industry and public agencies

Cost of living

Promotional opportunities

Working conditions

Maintenance of proper salary levels between supervisor and worker

Salary Increases

Individual salary increases shall be made on the basis of:

Recognition of merit

Length of service

Equal treatment of union and non-union

Leaves With Pay

Vacation of at least two weeks per year shall be provided for all regular employees, with added time for employees who have long service, or who are not eligible for overtime.

Sick leave computed at the rate of at least one day for each full month of service shall be provided, with the employee having the right to accumulate the unused portion under some plan provided by the institution.

Jury duty shall be recognized as a civic responsibility, and employees when summoned shall be given time off at no reduction in total pay.

Holidays with pay shall be provided consistent with operating schedules of the institution. Holidays, if worked, are to be treated as overtime.

Other leaves with pay will be considered for:

Death in the immediate family

Short period of military training

Leaves Without Pay

Leaves without pay shall be favorably considered in the case of employees who require an extended time to settle personal problems.

Where an employee must be gone for a time beyond the usual leave period, thus making a resignation necessary, he may be given a priority in reemployment to vacancies occurring after return to available status.

Retirement

A retirement program shall be developed, based on a joint contributory plan, equal to that for the academic staff, and preferably including social security in the over-all structure. As far as possible, aid and counsel shall be extended to employees reaching retirement age.

Insurance

A minimum program providing Workmen's Compensation Insurance shall be provided and, in addition, joint contributory plans for group life, hospital, disability, medical and surgical insurance shall be developed where possible.

Saving and Loans

The institution shall promote and en-

courage a Federal Credit Union or other sound programs to provide employees with a means of saving and of securing needed personal loans at reasonable rates.

Work Schedules

Hours of work and work schedules shall be determined by the needs of the institution, taking into consideration the general practices of the local community.

Overtime for non-supervisory personnel beyond the established work day or work week shall be recognized and paid for, preferably in cash, with option for time off—but at least with time off.

Communication

Provision shall be made to assure adequate communication both up and down between all levels of the staff of the institution using all resources available for this purpose.

A definite procedure shall be established to provide for the hearing and settlement of group or individual problems and grievances.

Outside Activities

Outside employment shall only be controlled to the extent necessary to prevent a detrimental effect on the employee's university work.

A policy shall be maintained which provides equality for all members of the staff in such matters as purchase of athletic tickets, use of recreational facilities, library, food service, and the like.

Collective Bargaining

Where applicable, and within the legal limitations governing each institution, a policy of recognition and bargaining with organized groups shall be maintained, but only after having received assurance of majority representation, and that in a suitable employee unit.

Security

It shall be the policy to provide year-round employment to the greatest extent possible with reductions if and when necessary based on merit and seniority within the work group.

Editorially Speaking . . .

(Continued from Page iv)

appropriation across-the-board to provide adjustment in salaries for all categories. Once this objective is met, we are in a position to engage in active competitive recruiting in a wide market extending far beyond the college community, for we cannot expect to locate all of the necessary technical, professional, and clerical employees to staff our organization in our community. This will be a new venture for many of us, for naturally this means newspaper advertising, brochures and personal salesmanship, and contact with private employment agencies, business schools, guidance counselors, state employment services, and many other sources that we identify as being fruitful in our search for manpower. I am sure that most of us are currently engaged in establishing and maintaining relationships with local schools and colleges in our areas, for they have, long ago, been recognized as excellent sources for manpower.

It may seem that once we have isolated all the sources in our area, we need only to contact them over and over again, and then interview, test, and refer, over and over again, until we are successful in filling our needs. But, is this the answer? Hardly. Our competition in industry is also active, with far greater staffs and money than we can muster. As we can only expect results in proportion to the efforts we can expend, we are led to the pursuit of other measures to supplement the short supply of trained personnel.

While I was at the University of Pittsburgh, we found a method which worked with remarkable success. Each year, in early Spring, we set aside a special day called Medical Research Career Day, which was designed to bring college graduates to the University to see our medical laboratories in action. In the first year of this program, we invited 18 college graduates to make a tour of our research laboratories, have lunch, and then return immediately to the department of their choice and talk directly with the chairman regarding employment after graduation. Of the 18 invited, we hired 16. Recently we invited 23 to attend and enjoyed the same relative success. The basic idea is: once invited and exposed to the laboratories and the research atmosphere typical of the career these graduates tentatively have chosen, it becomes increasingly difficult for the industrial recruiters, who recruit later in the year, to lure them away.

Another effort, based upon the success of the career day, provides a pool of technical manpower available to departments for February placement. By means of a sponsored Research Training grant, which will provide technical training and salary for graduates recruited in June, when the supply is more plentiful, it is possible to stockpile technicians to meet the February shortage.

These same techniques, quite naturally, could be applied to any other area of critical employment need; for example, there could be a Medical Secretary Day.

It is evident, therefore, that it is not enough simply to recruit from all sources, but it is also necessary to plan additional efforts to build a supply of manpower based upon anticipated needs in the future.

Democratic Administration . . .

(Continued from Page 3)

5. The need to assume responsibility.
6. The need for free communication.

Conclusion

In conclusion, it seems that a thorough study of the practical methods and procedures which can be developed in this area, along with a real desire on the part of the administrator, would make it possible for him to move forward to make his leadership more democratic and more effective. He should remember, however, that progress is often extremely slow and that his own growth in understanding and behavior is primary to the same kind of growth in the staff with which he works.

Labor Relations . . .

(Continued from Page 8)

The results of the questionnaire and the percentages shown do not have the exactness implied, since further review of all the questionnaires will be made, and the final report will be submitted at the Annual Meeting of the Association in August, 1961. Interpretive judgments, but no analytical judgments, have been made; therefore, the reader should draw his own conclusions.

Participation by members of the personnel staff in union activities and negotiations varied from institution to institution, depending on its size and its organizational structure, but in most cases it was suggested that the Personnel Office did participate, in varying degrees. A close interrelationship with the Business Office was suggested in many cases (where the personnel function or office was a section or division of the Business Office), whereas, in some cases the Personnel Director reported directly to the President of the institution and had considerable authority to act on behalf of the institution in dealing with union matters.

A number of suggestions were received as to how the committee might be helpful to member institutions, but the committee decided to defer any action on such proposals until after the membership has had time to review this report and also to discuss it at the National Conference in August, 1961.

Annual Report . . .

(Continued from Page 12)

the past year, analyzes significant trends, and projects the hopes and objectives for the future. It can, by all odds, become one of the institution's most effective publications—rivaling the campus viewbook for popularity and the college catalogue for its utilitarian value.

Its effectiveness will be in direct ratio to the imagination exhibited in producing it. To paraphrase Emerson, the world will not beat a path to the door of the man who invents a better mousetrap—unless they hear about it. One way a college or university can demonstrate it has a better product—an institution dedicated to providing higher education of superior quality—is to tell people about it. The institution's annual report is an excellent vehicle for this assignment.

ESTABLISHMENT OF NATIONAL PLACEMENT SERVICE ANNOUNCED

Dr. Charles T. Clark, President of the College and University Personnel Association, has announced that, effective as of October 1, 1961, our Association will sponsor a professionally staffed national placement service for college and university administrative officers and for other categories of a professional nature. Positions of administrative responsibility in practically all areas of higher education will be included, except those directly concerned with academic administration; the service will provide a central point for placement and referral for administrative and professional positions in such areas as business management, housing, food service, personnel, accounting, purchasing, public relations, admissions, and student personnel administration.

A national Placement Service has been the object of study by the College and University Personnel Association for over three years, and Orie E. Myers, Jr., a past President of the Association, has been Chairman of a committee working toward the accomplishment of this goal.

The Executive Committee of the Association, in its February meeting, discussed the possibility of being able to arrange for Donald E. Dickason to carry on the work of a placement service, as well as to continue his responsibilities of the office of Executive Secretary of the Association, following his retirement in September. With additional time to devote to the job, Mr. Dickason anticipates being able to provide stepped-up and broadened services to the Association.

The change in dues structure is expected to provide funds to cover the operating expenses of the office of Executive Secretary. A well-known Foundation has recently provided a grant of $5,000 each year for two years to the Association to get the Placement Service under way. This grant will be used to cover the costs of printing brochures, forms, and other documents and for appropriate advertising in the educational press. It is expected, also, that it will cover the expenses of the Executive Secretary and other Association officers to meetings of related Associations within the next year or so, in order to carry the word directly to these groups.

The results of this venture will depend, not only on the effective work of the new office, but also on the individual interest and cooperation of every Association member. Details regarding areas where participation can be mutually helpful will be sent to all concerned early in the Fall.